



Scalable Simulations of Penetration Mechanics on the SGI Origin 3800 and the IBM SP Power3 Computer Systems

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Abstract

This report presents an overview of an explicit message-passing paradigm for an Eulerian finite volume method for modeling solid dynamics problems involving shock wave propagation, multiple materials, and large deformations. Three-dimensional simulations of high velocity impact were conducted on the SGI Origin 3800 and the IBM SP Power3 computer systems. The scalability of the message-passing code on these architectures is presented and compared to the ideal linear multiple processor performance.

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1. Introduction

The mechanics of penetration and perforation of solids have long been of interest for military applications in terminal ballistics. Kinetic energy penetration phenomena are also germane to applications involving high mass and high velocity debris attributable to accidents or high rate energy release, the transportation safety of hazardous materials, the safety of nuclear reactor containment vessels, the design of lightweight body armor, the erosion and fracture of solids because of repeated impacts by liquid or solid particles, and the protection of spacecraft from meteoroid impact.

Three-dimensional (3-D) continuum mechanics simulations of high velocity impact phenomena delineate the high performance computing resources for Army applications in terminal ballistics. Current applications in high velocity impact phenomena require the simulation time to increase from the microsecond to millisecond regime, and complex geometries dictate a finer mesh resolution. For a given computational domain, the number of cells in the domain scales inversely with the cube of the zone size. Reducing the zone size by a factor of N in each dimension will increase the number of zones (and thus the memory requirements) by a factor of N^3 . The explicit time integration scheme requires the time step to be proportional to the zone size to satisfy stability requirements. Thus, the number of integration cycles will increase as the zone size is decreased. The combined increase in number of zones and integration cycles resulting from grid refinement dictates that the processor requirements scale to the fourth power as the mesh is refined with smaller zones. These factors are strong stimuli for exploiting scalable architectures and algorithms.

In previous efforts, scalable penetration mechanics simulations were performed using a variety of commercially available parallel computer systems to evaluate the parallel performance of these architectures (Schraml and Kimsey 2000; Kimsey et al. 1998). The simulations in those studies were performed with the CTH hydrodynamics code (McGlaun and Thompson 1990). The scalability study was recently continued to evaluate the performance of two new architectures, the SGI Origin 3800 and the IBM SP Power3. This report describes the findings of the scalability studies of these systems.

2. Scalable Paradigm

CTH is an Eulerian finite volume code for modeling solid dynamics problems involving shock wave propagation, multiple materials, and large deformations in

one, two, or three dimensions. CTH is widely used across the defense research and development community to model problems in shock wave propagation. CTH employs a two-step solution scheme: a Lagrangian step followed by a remap step. The conservation equations are replaced by explicit finite volume equations that are solved in the Lagrangian step. The remap step uses operator splitting techniques to replace multidimensional equations with a set of one-dimensional (1-D) equations. The remap or advection step is based on a second order accurate method. To minimize material dispersion, several high resolution material interface trackers are available. Both analytical and tabular equations of state are available to model the hydrodynamic behavior of materials. Models for elastic-plastic behavior and high explosive detonation are also available.

Robinson et al. (1992) developed the algorithmic framework for conducting scalable Eulerian finite volume simulations for modeling problems in solid dynamics, based on object-oriented programming. Robinson demonstrated that the structured mesh of the Eulerian finite volume method is well suited for scalable paradigms employing message passing between computational subdomains.

One computing technique that can be employed on scalable computer architectures is referred to as single program multiple data (SPMD). Under the SPMD paradigm, the same executable code runs on each computational node, but each executable code works on a different set of data. Algorithms that depend on a fixed, logically connected mesh are readily adapted to the SPMD paradigm. The technique used for SPMD parallelism in CTH is similar to the formulation developed by Robinson et al. (1992) in that the entire problem domain is divided into subdomains that reside on individual computational nodes.

The use of "ghost" cells is a common technique for applying boundary conditions to finite difference and finite volume schemes, making the internal differencing computations independent of edges and corners in the Eulerian mesh. To adapt CTH to the SPMD paradigm, these ghost cells are used for passing messages between nodes. This practice of explicit message passing between subdomains allows each of the individual subdomains to have access to its neighboring subdomain's boundary cell data. Where a subdomain boundary is an external boundary of the overall computational domain, the ghost cell data are based on the appropriate boundary condition approximation. A simple example of this approach to mesh decomposition with explicit message passing is provided in Figure 1. For simplicity, the ghost cells are not shown in the primary computational domain or the subdomains of Figure 1. A thorough description of the distributed finite volume algorithm and message communication between subdomains is provided by Kimsey et al. (1998).

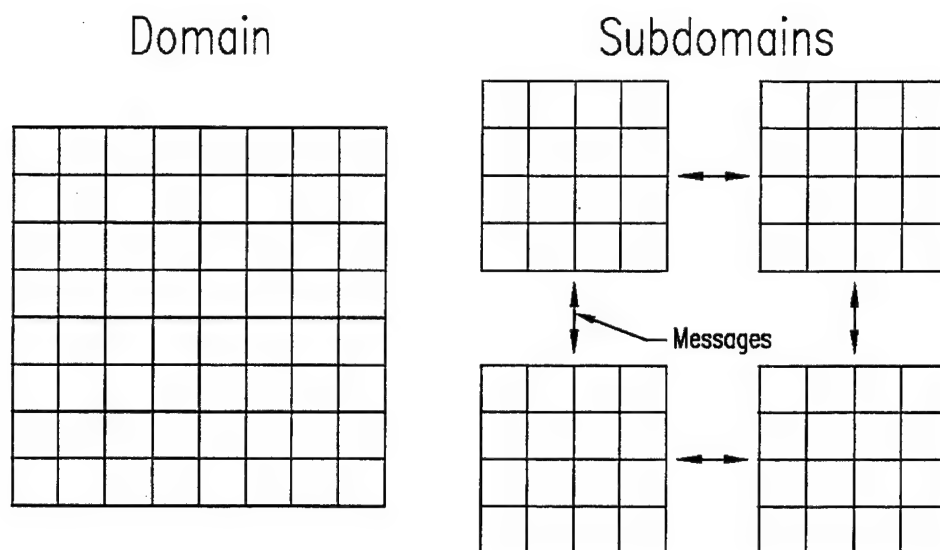


Figure 1. CTH mesh decomposition with explicit message passing.

3. Parallel Architectures

The SGI Origin 3800 is the largest in the SGI 3000 series of third generation cache-coherent non-uniform memory access (cc-NUMA) systems. The cc-NUMA architecture supports full access to the entire system memory from any processor. Both shared memory parallelism (e.g., OpenMP) and distributed memory parallelism (e.g., the message-passing interface [MPI]) models are supported. The system is modular in design and is comprised of (1) computing bricks that contain four processors and a maximum of 8 GB of memory, (2) router bricks that are used to interconnect computing bricks, and (3) input/output (I/O) bricks that provide interfaces for external connectivity (SGI Inc. 2000).

The computing brick uses MIPS R12000 processors with 8 MB of external level 2 data cache. It has a local memory subsystem with a bandwidth of 3.2 GB/s and a latency of 175 ns. A 3.2-GB/s link connects the computing brick to the router brick for access to memory on remote computing bricks. As the system is scaled to larger numbers of processors, the maximum number of router "hops" and the maximum latency increase. A 256-processor system, such as the one used for the current study, contains 64 computing bricks and 20 router bricks. The maximum number of router hops to a remote memory location is five, and the worst case latency is 485 ns – a little more than twice the latency of the memory within the local computing brick.

The current study employed 128-processor and 256-processor SGI Origin 3800 systems installed at the U.S. Army Research Laboratory (ARL) Major Shared Resource Center (MSRC). The systems at the ARL MSRC use 400-MHz processors, each containing a single floating point unit that supports a single cycle add-multiply instruction resulting in a peak floating point rate of 800 million floating point operations per second (MFLOPS). The 256-processor system has a peak floating point performance of 205 billion floating point operations per second (GFLOPS) and a peak memory bandwidth of 205 GB/s.

The IBM SP system consists of computing nodes that are interconnected via a specialized network switch. Each computing node is an independent system with its own operating system (OS), memory, and I/O devices. A single node may contain as many as 16 processors. The current investigation is focused on the 16-processor SMP node, also referred to as a "high" node. This architecture can support shared memory programming within a node and distributed memory programming within and/or between nodes. The two programming models can be mixed by employing shared memory programming within a node and distributed memory programming between nodes for multilevel parallelism. The current study employed only distributed memory programming with MPI.

The 16-processor SMP high node uses 375-MHz Power3-II processors (Amos et al. 2000). Each processor has two independent floating point units, each of which is capable of completing a multiply-add instruction every cycle resulting in a peak floating point performance of 1.5 GFLOPS per processor. The Power3-II high node memory subsystem includes (1) an on-chip 64-kB level 1 data cache and 32-kB instruction cache, (2) an off-chip 8-MB level 2 data cache, and (3) a cache-coherent switch-based memory that can be as large as 64 GB. The high node has a local memory system with a bandwidth of 16 GB/s and a latency of approximately 400 ns. Remote-to-local memory latency ratios are on the order of 100.

The IBM SP system installed at the ARL MSRC uses 32 Power3-II SMP high nodes, each with 16 GB of memory coupled with the SP switch2 interconnection system (Jennes 2000). Each node uses a single switch2 adapter, which has a peak transfer rate of 1 GB/s (500 MB/s in each direction) and a latency of approximately 50 μ s. The system topology is such that each node has a node-to-switch connection, and all switches are interconnected. A maximum of three hops is required to send a message from one node to another. The 512-processor system has a theoretical peak speed of 768 GFLOPS and a peak memory bandwidth of 512 GB/s.

4. Scalable Simulations

CTH with explicit message passing has been used to model a long rod projectile impacting an oblique steel plate on the two scalable architectures described previously. This problem was selected because of well-characterized experimental data and previous serial CTH simulations conducted by Hertel (1992). Fugelso and Taylor (1978) conducted a series of ballistic experiments to evaluate the effects of combined obliquity and yaw on high density long rod projectiles. Depleted uranium (DU) alloy long rod projectiles with little or no yaw were launched into an oblique, rolled homogeneous armor (RHA) plate that had been accelerated by an explosive charge, resulting in a yawed impact in the plate frame of reference. The DU alloy (DU 0.75%Ti) projectiles were right circular cylinders with a hemispherical nose, and the impact velocities ranged from 850 to 1650 m/s. Yaw and obliquity angles ranged from 0° to 70° and 10° to 0° , respectively, in the test series. The length and diameter of the projectile in Shot 58 of the test series are 7.67 cm and 0.767 cm, respectively, for a length-to-diameter ratio (L/D) of 10. The striking velocity was 1289 m/s, and the thickness of the RHA plate was 6.4 mm. In the laboratory frame of reference, the angle of obliquity was 73.5° , the plate velocity was 217 m/s, and the projectile velocity was 1210 m/s. In the plate frame of reference, the angle of obliquity was 64.2° , the projectile velocity was 1289 m/s, and the yaw angle was -9.3° . A schematic diagram of the initial conditions for Shot 58 is illustrated in Figure 2.

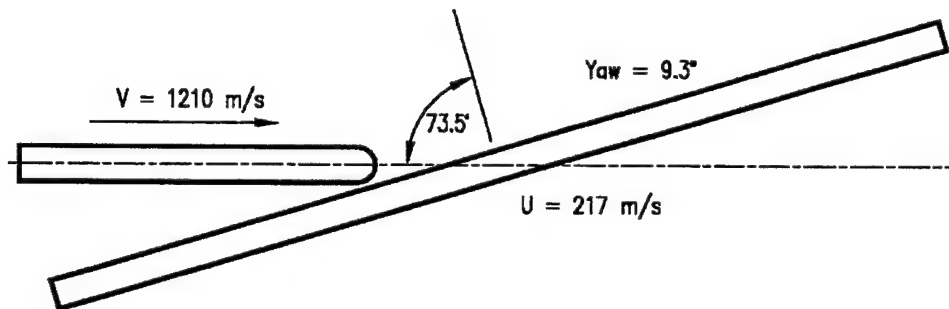


Figure 2. Initial conditions for combined yaw and obliquity impact simulation.

The scalability study was conducted with a nearly constant workload (i.e., number of computational cells on each processor for each of the simulations). This was done to keep the computation-to-communication ratio as close to constant as possible for simulations involving different numbers of processors. Maintaining a nearly constant computation-to-communication ratio and

eliminating disk access for intermediate plot and restart files during the time integration permitted the computational performance to be isolated and measured as a function of the number of processors used.

The single-processor baseline calculation used a Cartesian computational domain spanning 21.5 cm in the X direction, 3.0 cm in the Y direction, and 6.0 cm in the Z direction. The computational domain was discretized into uniform cubic zones 1 mm long, resulting in a 3-D grid of $215 \times 30 \times 60$. As the number of processors in a simulation increased, the number of zones in the model increased accordingly to maintain a nearly constant number of computational zones per processor.

All calculations were conducted for a simulated time of 40 μ s. The grid was incrementally refined by uniformly decreasing the characteristic zone length in each coordinate direction by a factor of $2^{-1/3}$. This approach doubles the total number of grid points with each successive mesh refinement. The characteristics of the grids used in the scalability study are summarized in Table 1. In this table, the columns NI, NJ, and NK refer to the number of Eulerian cells in the x , y , and z directions, respectively, and do not include ghost cells. The grid sizes listed in the table produce computational subdomains containing approximately 387,000 Eulerian cells each. For the 512-processor simulation, this results in a computational domain containing approximately 200 million Eulerian cells. An alternative to this mesh refinement technique would be to double the number of zones in one direction for one refinement, then double the number of zones in another direction for the next refinement, and so on. This approach would reduce the time step by a factor of two on the first refinement and would double the number of time integration cycles (i.e., computational cycles) to reach the desired simulation time of 40 μ s. The method of uniform zone size reduction resulted in a reduction of the time step by a factor of approximately $2^{-1/3}$ with each refinement. As a result, the number of computational cycles required to reach 40 μ s of simulated time increased only by a factor of approximately $2^{1/3}$ each time the number of processors doubled.

The scalable performance of the message-passing code is measured by the "grind time," which is the average processor time required for the code to revise all flow field variables for one computational cell in a given time increment (cycle). The grind time is expressed in units of μ s/(zone-cycle). In a case of ideal scalability, the grind time will decrease by a factor of two for every doubling of processors used if the ratio of computation to communication is held constant.

Table 1. Computational grids used in scalability study.

Number of Processors	NI	NJ	NK	Zone Length (mm)	Total Zones
1	215	30	60	1.000	387,000
2	271	38	75	0.794	772,350
4	341	48	95	0.630	1,554,960
8	430	60	120	0.500	3,096,000
16	541	76	151	0.397	6,208,516
32	683	95	191	0.315	12,393,035
64	860	120	240	0.250	24,768,000
128	1083	151	302	0.198	49,386,966
256	1366	190	382	0.157	99,144,280
512	1720	240	480	0.125	198,144,000

5. Scalability Results

All calculations in the scalability study were run to a simulated time of 40 μ s. The calculations run on the SGI Origin 3800 were run on power-of-two sets of processors between 1 and 256. The performance results from the simulations are presented in Figure 3. The measured grind times are represented by the circle symbols in the figure. The solid line represents the line of ideal scalability extrapolated from the single-processor simulation. Figure 3 shows that the measured results form a straight line, but the slope of that line does not follow the line of ideal scalability. Given the linear relationship of the measured grind time as a function of the number of processors, the actual scalability can be described by the equation

$$g_n = g_1/n^m \quad (1)$$

in which g_n is the predicted grind time for n processors, g_1 is the measured grind time from the single-processor simulation, and m is the parallel efficiency (the slope of the straight line formed by the measured results). A value of m equal to 1.0 represents the condition of ideal scalability. The actual value of m can be obtained by the application of a regression analysis to the measured data and results in a parallel efficiency of 0.878 for the SGI Origin 3800. A dashed line of this slope is plotted in Figure 3 and illustrates the divergence of the actual scalability from the ideal. The measured grind time in the single-processor calculation was 24.020 μ s/(zone-cycle). Using the parallel efficiency of 0.878 from the regression analysis and the scalability relationship in equation 1, the

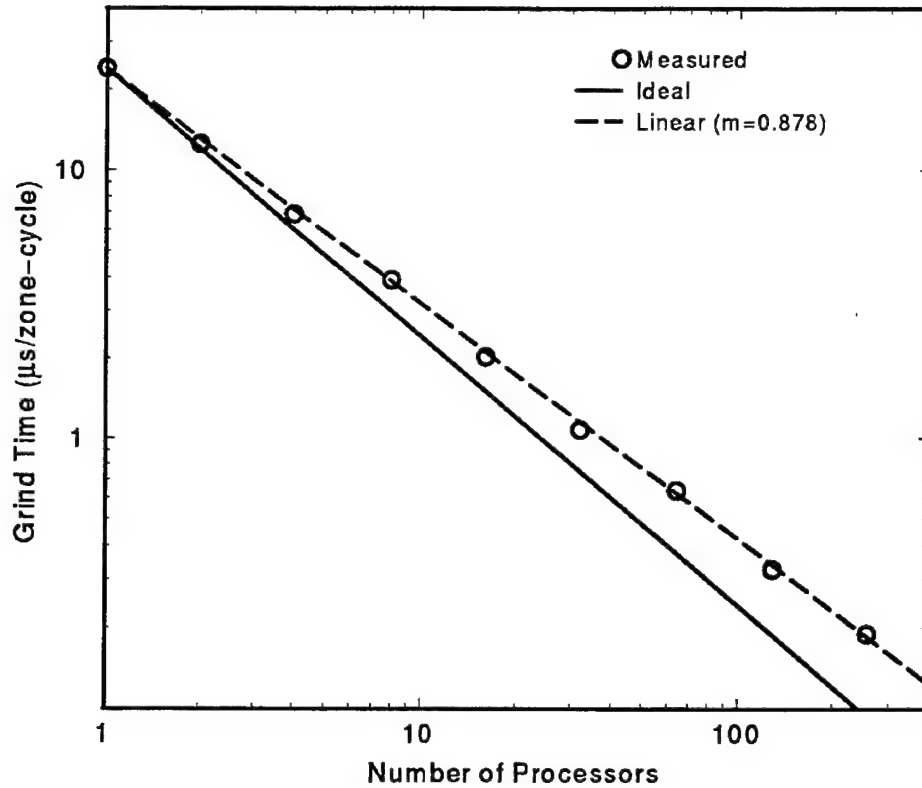


Figure 3. Scalability of CTH on the SGI Origin 3800.

predicted grind time for 256 processors is $0.185 \mu\text{s}/(\text{zone-cycle})$. The measured grind time from the 256-processor simulation was $0.189 \mu\text{s}/(\text{zone-cycle})$, resulting in a performance ratio of 127 over the single-processor simulation.

The scalability simulations run on the IBM SP Power3 were run with power-of-two sets of processors between 1 and 512. Because this architecture is a collection of tightly coupled SMP nodes, there can be several different ways to configure a particular number of processors. For example, a 16-processor simulation can be run on one node using 16 processors, 16 nodes using one processor each, two nodes using eight processors each, eight nodes using two processors each, or four nodes using four processors each. In the study described here, at least one simulation was performed for every possible combination of nodes and processors per node to obtain the power-of-two processor sets.

The results from the scalability study on the IBM SP Power3 are presented in Figure 4. The measured results are represented by marker symbols in the plot. The measured results are organized by the number of processors per SMP node used in the simulations. Organizing the data in this manner helps to identify the effect of processor layout on the performance. The figure shows that the

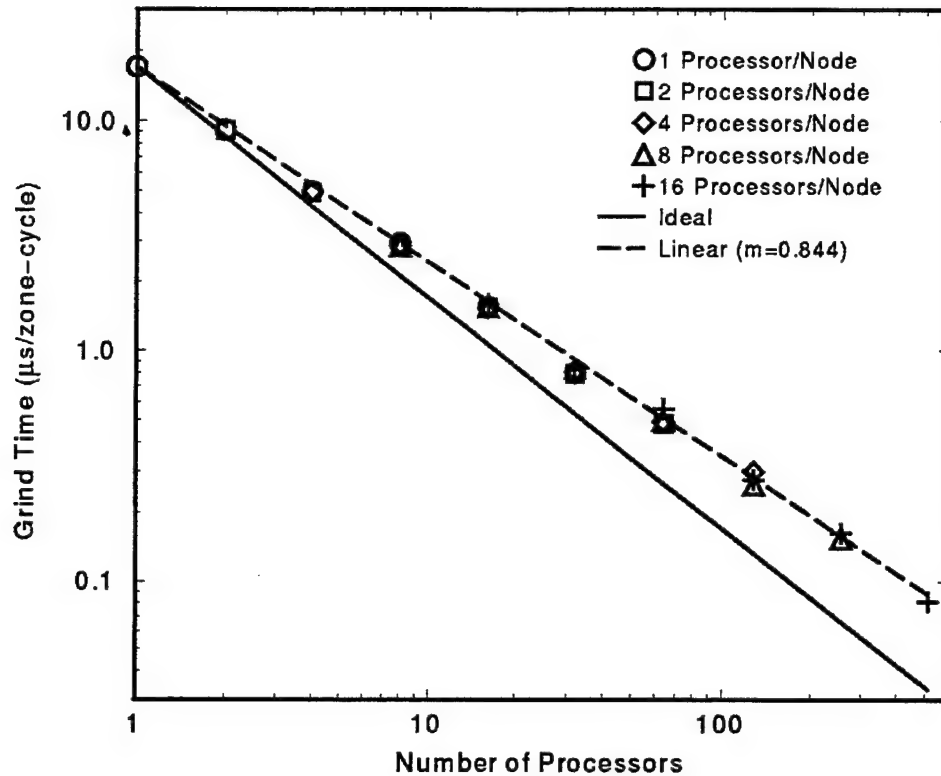


Figure 4. Scalability of CTH on the IBM SP Power3.

measured grind time varies only slightly with the different combinations of nodes and processors per node used. This indicates that the data transfer rate between processors on different nodes is the same as that for processors on a common node.

As previously described, each SMP node in the system contains 16 processors and runs its own copy of the operating system. Before the scalability study was performed, it was considered that the cases using 16 processors per node might suffer a performance degradation as a result of contention with the OS. By using all 16 processors on the node, at least one CTH process might have to compete with the OS in its task of controlling the functions of the node. However, the results of simulations using 16 processors per node fall along the same straight line as the other results, indicating that contention with the OS is not a significant issue.

Figure 4 contains a line of ideal scalability that is extrapolated from the single-processor simulation. The measured results were combined to perform a regression analysis and resulted in a parallel efficiency, m , of 0.844, slightly less than the SGI Origin 3800. The grind time from the single-processor simulation on the IBM SP Power3 was 17.007 $\mu\text{s}/(\text{zone-cycle})$, slightly faster than the single-processor simulation on the SGI Origin 3800. The 512-processor simulation on

the IBM resulted in a measured grind time of $0.082 \mu\text{s}/(\text{zone-cycle})$, resulting in a performance ratio of 208 over the single-processor case.

To compare the performance of both systems, the measured grind times and lines of linear scalability are plotted in Figure 5. The measured data from all processor configurations of the IBM have been consolidated into a single set of data and are represented by the circle marker symbol. The measured grind times from the SGI simulations are represented by the square marker symbols. The figure illustrates the faster single-processor performance of the IBM and the greater scalability of the SGI. Even though the IBM has a faster processor, the improved scalability of the SGI causes its performance to converge with that of the IBM as the number of processors is increased. The results of the 256-processor simulations for both systems overlap as the two linear scalability curves converge. For use in a production computing environment supporting large-scale continuum mechanics simulations, the performance difference between the two systems is practically negligible for processor configurations in the 256-512 range.

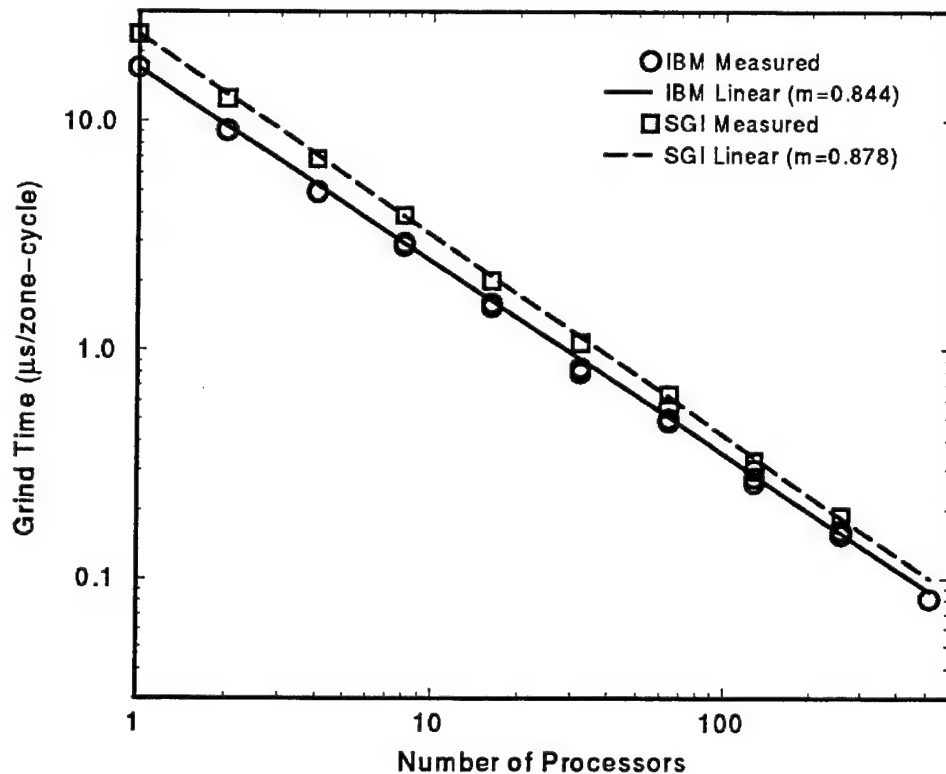


Figure 5. Comparison of CTH scalability results.

6. Summary

In a previous effort, the CTH hydrodynamics code was adapted to an SPMD programming paradigm to exploit large, scalable computer architectures. This paradigm involves the decomposition of the structured mesh into computational subdomains, with explicit message passing used to communicate data between the multiple processes used in solving the problem. This method has been previously demonstrated to scale linearly as the number of processors and corresponding problem size increased.

Two new entries into the scalable high performance computing community are the SGI Origin 3800 and the IBM SP Power3. A scalability analysis was performed on each system by running a series of 3-D parallel simulations on power-of-two sets of processors. The problem size was scaled with the number of processors to maintain a constant ratio of computation to communication. Both systems were found to scale linearly with parallel efficiencies of 0.844 for the IBM and 0.878 for the SGI. A parallel efficiency of 1.0 represents perfect scalability. Comparison of the performance of the two systems for large processor sets shows that they are both appropriate platforms for large-scale continuum mechanics analyses.

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